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ABSTRACT

Linkages between local schools and teacher education institutions are considered an essential factor in preventing isolation of these institutions from the realities of field situations. Participating directly in educational reform programs is an effective strategy that teacher education institutions can use in making their innovations relevant to the needs of the country. Since there is an increasing emphasis on teacher competence, techniques for evaluation of the minimum acceptable performance of teacher trainees are urgently needed. Educational materials are scarce and teacher trainees should be actively involved in the study, construction, and use of material aides. Developing countries may not be able to await detailed research findings before mass implementation of an innovation. Long term planning for mass implementation and active sharing of experiences are important. The nature of the role of the UNESCO field staff member has evolved from an executive to an advisory function in these countries. (JD)

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The training of educational personnel

Report of a regional seminar

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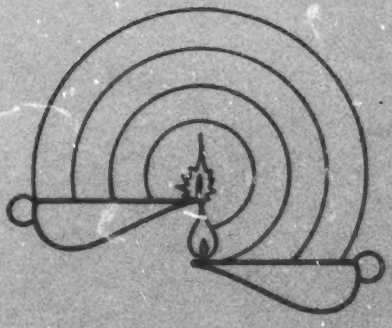

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INTRODUCTION

Background

Implementing Resolution 1.171 of the General Conference of Unesco at its Nineteenth Session, the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania, in co-operation with the Unesco Headquarters' Division of Higher Education and Training of Educational Personnel, organized a Regional Seminar from 24-30 October 1978, in Chiangmai, Thailand.

The main purpose of the Seminar was to discuss the experience in Unesco-associated Teacher Education Programmes (Pre- and In-Service) in the context of: (1) alternative approaches that are appearing in the preparation of educational personnel, with particular reference to new roles of educational personnel in educational development; (2) application of new techniques for the preparation of educational personnel; (3) strategies for post-project implementation; and (4) role of the Unesco Specialist in the national context.

The specific objectives of the Seminar were the following:

- to exchange experiences regarding projects in the region related to the preparation of educational personnel, with which Unesco is associated as an executing or assisting agency;
- to consider, in depth, selected significant issues related to the preparation of educational personnel;
- to consider emerging roles of the Unesco Specialist in the national context.

Inauguration

The Seminar was inaugurated at Chiangmai on 24 October, by Mr. A. Chiba, Deputy Director, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania (vide Appendix I for Inaugural

Address). National Directors and Unesco Specialists from eight countries in the region attended the Seminar (vide Annex II for List of Participants). Dr. Adrea O. Fineza, Director, Distance Study System, Philippines, served the Seminar as a resource person.

Office Bearers

The inauguration was followed by the election of Office Bearers of the Seminar. The following were unanimously elected:

Chairman : H.E. Mr. Mohamed Zahir Hussain
Deputy Minister of Education
Republic of Maldives

Vice Chairmen : Mr. Soeprapto
Director of Teacher Training
Indonesia

: Mr. Panom Kawkamnerd
Deputy Director-General
Department of Teacher Training
Thailand

Rapporteurs : Mr. Nado Rinchhen
Director of Education
Bhutan

assisted by : Mr. W.M. Matheson
Unesco Team Leader, IDA-III
Indonesia

and : Mr. J.R. Huntington
Unesco Adviser for Primary Education
and Project Team Leader
Republic of Maldives

Mr. J. Ratnaike of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania was nominated Secretary to the Seminar.

The Office Bearers, the Resource Person and the Unesco Secretariat constituted the Bureau of the Seminar, which met regularly to review the progress of the Seminar activities.

Pre-Seminar activities

In preparation for the Seminar, participants (National Directors and Unesco Specialists) were requested to send in problems and issues which may be taken up for discussion at the Seminar. These suggestions were incorporated into the Agenda of the Seminar (Vide Annex I). Participants were provided the finalized Agenda ahead of time, and requested to prepare a brief discussion paper on one or more of the issues raised in the Agenda, and send it to the Regional Office. These discussion papers became the basis for the annotations of the Agenda.

Seminar activities

After the inaugural session, participants from each country described the relevant projects for the preparation of educational personnel: the characteristics, problems, and future directions of movement. The presentations were followed by a period of lively discussion, clarification and comment (Vide Schedule of Work, Annex III). These discussions formed a realistic background against which to discuss the various topics of the Agenda, which followed for the following nine sessions of the Seminar.

The Seminar met in final plenary session, on 30 October, to adopt the Report.

The Report

This Report records the discussions on the various topics of the Agenda. Issues raised in the initial project review sessions and in the various Seminar documents, have been incorporated into the content of the main body of the Report, under the relevant topics.

Acknowledgements

The Seminar recorded its gratitude for the many generosities provided by the delegation from Thailand and by the Rector, Teacher Training College, Chiangmai. It also expressed its appreciation of the contributions made by the Resource Person, Dr. Adrea O. Fineza, and of the efforts made by Unesco in providing the opportunity for a valuable exchange of experiences through the Seminar.

Chapter One

ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES IN THE PREPARATION OF EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL

Teacher education and curriculum development

Historically the teacher education institutions of the region have been somewhat isolated from the communities they serve. Their curricula were academic, and their products were not oriented to the real needs of their areas. The problems discussed by the Seminar participants centred around the strategies that might have been used by these institutions on the one hand, and the schools on the other, to implement the broad curriculum goals set up by a Ministry of Education. Linkages were required to ensure that the teacher education institution did not remain isolated from the real situation of the schools and the communities it serves, but became an integral part of the general policy of change.

To overcome a situation where, for example, teacher education institutions have no copies of newly developed primary textbooks, and few other materials reflecting the interests of school and community, various strategies have been successful in bringing such institutions into the change process. To overcome historical barriers like an inappropriate colonial system of administration, tradition opposing innovation, serious economic conditions, various cultural and political barriers, countries have had to adopt policies of change that incorporate the teacher education institutions in the total process.

Analyzing the strategies that are most commonly adopted, a claim has been made that "participative problem-solving" is the most highly endorsed strategy. This suggests a combination of value judgements about what is right, practical ideas about what is possible, and assessments about what is most acceptable and workable.

Thailand, Pakistan and Indonesia are examples of countries represented at the Seminar which have devised strategies for involving teacher educators in the development and implementation of curricula in various ways, ranging from participating in the design operation, in-service activities, follow-up with continuing education activities and monitoring mass implementation. Thailand has, in addition, provided an early-warning system to teacher education institutions through seminars and orientations. A two-year lead time permitted these institutions to modify their thinking and prepare for action. The universities and teacher education institutions have established design groups that are developing learning packages for teacher trainees, based upon competencies derived from the tasks expected of teachers in the new curricula, so that the participation and involvement reaches right down to the day-to-day activities at the teacher education institutions. Similar strategies were reported from the Philippines, India, Burma, Malaysia and Sri Lanka.

From the experiences of curriculum development and implementation of the 1960s, it is apparent that a more comprehensive and systems view of curriculum development and implementation is being generated in countries in the region, so that the teacher education system becomes involved in various roles throughout the elements in the operations of curriculum development, implementation and evaluation.

At least one country in the region (India) has taken a step further in shifting the responsibility for the development of locally specific and decentralized curricula to teacher education institutions, and has made the training of teachers an integral component of the curriculum development process. Education staff at Chiangmai University recognizing that educational curricula should be relevant to society outside have used their student teachers to assist in the schools as well as to assist out-of-school programmes.

These and other strategies of change, with their own built-in evaluation, tend to overcome the resistance to change offered by teachers and others who may not have been involved in planning the changes. Teachers must be better motivated to attend courses and oriented to work, within the wider aims of society. The

importance of local initiative, responsibility and self help as the driving force of national development has been emphasized in recent years. If development does not meet the needs and aspirations of the people concerned it tends to become meaningless.

The specific competency demands of new curricula, and in some countries, the very large numbers of teachers to be trained to meet massive programmes such as the universalization of education, have convinced decision makers that the earlier models of a "comprehensive" basket of skills and competencies being provided to teacher trainees, supposedly to train them to meet 'any' situation is wasteful in time, effort and cost. This has further been questioned because the 'any' situation had not apparently taken into account the realities of the school system, especially in disadvantaged areas of a country, due to the unfortunate isolation of teacher education institutions from the ecologies of the client populations they were supposed to serve. A much more focused and selected set of competencies is beginning to appear, directly derived from the curricula. Training programmes are moving towards incorporating designs which are themselves specific to these selected competencies. Under conditions of mass implementation and large numbers of teachers, even these competencies are beginning to be placed in a priority order, so that, to permit quick mass implementation, a minimum sub-set of competencies may form the minimum package of competencies that is provided in the training.

Sets of competencies in teacher education have been devised which are more specific to the needs of the consumer society and no longer geared to a theoretical and more heterogeneous area. This has often involved many of the informal skills of the society being brought into the formal curriculum of the teacher education institution.

In the context of a shift of emphases in education systems in the countries of the region, consideration has been given to aspects of the psychological and sociological implications of long term poverty, particularly in regard to learning environments and learning processes. It would seem essential that very specific attention, in all curriculum development and at all teacher education institutions, will need to be paid to this major dimension

in the teaching/learning situation. In this respect, the question of language becomes of paramount importance, especially if the language of instruction may not be the mother tongue of the learners.

The time factor has always been important in the implementation for large scale innovation. One empirical analysis of change in education systems indicates that education systems, including teacher education institutions, work their way along a continuum of at least four stages: the initial stage where teachers are uneducated and untrained; to a stage of formalism with teachers trained in a rigid system but still largely uneducated; to a stage of transition; and finally to a stage of meaning during which trained and educated teachers place emphasis on individual learning and the use of many resources. Even if the thesis is broadly correct in terms of past experience, it may not be necessary for countries to follow always this "historic" path. However, there are dangers in countries taking too many educational short cuts, particularly those which the education system cannot accommodate, especially at the stage of implementation on a mass scale. When high risk strategies are deliberately adopted, such countries would do well to examine critically the experience of others which have attempted to implement such strategies, before committing themselves to, for example, free and compulsory primary education, free textbook schemes or similar major changes. The priorities must also be sorted out in accordance with national aims especially those related to social justice and egalitarian principles. The priorities might include action in regard to the problems of disadvantaged groups, such as women in many societies, small farmers, slum dwellers, or nomadic and tribal populations.

Teacher education institutions must not be left out of such studies and planning if their products are to take part later in national development. The role of the teacher himself is likely to change as he acquires new competencies and fits into the national development pattern. He can perhaps no longer consider himself strictly or only as a "professional" who is "completely" free to experiment and do his own research. He may have to settle, more commonly, for being a civil servant in the full sense,

perhaps a technician, a para-professional, a manager of the learning process. It is in this way that he may become an agent of change rather than an initiator of change. It is certain that the teacher education institutions at various levels will need to concern themselves more and more with producing a different kind of teacher if they are to comply with the aspirations of a whole people as expressed in national socio-economic development plans and curricula consistent with these plans.

Teacher education and rural transformation

It was generally agreed with reference to specific teacher education programmes throughout the region, that the role of the teacher is changing to include activities as a change agent for rural development and transformation. This trend is a direct result of recent socio-economic policies of Member States which emphasize equity, social justice and egalitarian principles, and actions being taken focused upon disadvantaged populations. It is also a manifestation of the demand for greater relevance in education and for a more concrete contribution of the education system to socio-economic development.

In making the education system relevant to rural transformation, attempts have been initiated to influence the system directly to become involved with rural development, and simultaneously influence the elements involved in rural development to make demands on the education system.

The trend was specified by participants in various country examples from Bhutan, Thailand, Republic of Maldives, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Republic of Korea, and Indonesia. It was clearly visible that the trend brings with it a strong need for a change in emphasis towards the new tasks and competencies required for the teachers' expanded role. Other countries, such as Afghanistan, indicated the problems facing national systems that wish to involve teacher education with rural transformation, but have not established and/or maintained a core of expertise to initiate the work. The implications of this changing role for teacher education institutions include consideration of modifications in objectives based upon real needs of the community, organization, staffing, curriculum, methodologies and facilities, within these

institutions, and equally radical changes in their relationships with other development agencies, and the community at large.

At the same time it was pointed out by several participants that even 'formal school' curriculum development, is, itself, changing towards a more practical community-centred and developmental bias as it seeks greater relevance. These changes have had an indirect but important effect on teacher education and school practices. Unlike past practices which tended to treat community work, if it existed at all, and 'life', as something quite separate from classroom activities, the new curricula attempt to provide direct linkages and relationships between school and community experiences. Several good examples of this trend in several countries in the region were brought out, including the introduction of work experience or socially useful productive work, social service, emphasis on application of school learning in real life situations. With these reforms also follow varying degrees of deformalisation of the formal system, and a change from application to intervention in the community as a contribution from the school system to enhancing the quality of life of disadvantaged populations.

Of particular relevance to this point was the discussion focusing on the radical changes necessary to enable educational personnel and community members to see the possibilities of looking at the life and communication patterns of the community as a basis for the organization and rythmn of classroom learning activities, and of providing increasingly for not only learning for life but learning in life itself.

The exploitation of such patterns becomes inevitable for non-formal education activities.

Questions were raised and examples were cited as to specific methods for reorienting the curriculum in this fashion, including analysis of real life situations for learnable content, and finding convergence between such content, and content specified in formal curricula. National development programmes such as those related to health, agriculture, rural electrification, reforestation and fisheries, are valuable content sources for this purpose.

Training of educational personnel

A general conclusion emerged to the effect that teacher educators and all others concerned in the educational process, must work together with the various nation building departments and members of the community, to bring about a more realistically based programme of learning sequences, both at teacher education institutions and school levels, if any substantial changes are to take place towards education's contribution to rural transformation.

A good example of work in this direction is that taking place in 15 States in India, where teachers, teacher educators and trainees are involved in the development of relevant, local specific decentralized curricula. This is now to be extended to a "production cum training" sequence at each elementary teacher education institution throughout the country, where decentralized curriculum development, specific to particular learner populations, will become the core of the programme for training teachers for elementary schools. Bhutan, again via the teacher education programme, is pioneering the delivery of direct inputs to rural transformation from the education system.

A pervasive concern reiterated throughout the discussion, was about the formidable constraints imposed upon any attempt to link up the school and the teacher as a means of promoting rural transformation.

Among the constraints mentioned, one was considered paramount, the resistance of vested interests to intervention for rural transformation. There is no doubt that attempts at distributive justice will bring in questions relating to existing structures of the social, economic and political environment. Attempts at penetrating beyond the symptoms of poverty, to the causes of poverty, can be predicted to activate impressive pressures to counter action.

Although some general pessimism was expressed at the thought of doing much in this area, several possible solutions, or more appropriately, techniques were discussed, such as the education system and its vast numbers contributing to the success of nationally established development programmes by being agents for the necessary educational inputs to the various target populations involved. This may be done by contributing specifically to

the knowledge, skill and attitude changes in client populations needed to make these development programmes successful - these knowledge, skills and attitudes being derived directly from the development programmes.

If indeed the education system was to contribute to rural transformation, in spite of the substantial constraints, then the various educational personnel have to be specifically trained for the purpose. As a basis of such training, it would be necessary for teacher education institutions to establish the priority competencies teachers should have to execute programmes relating education to rural transformation. Among the pervasive competencies recognized during the discussions, were the following:

1. Profound sensitivity is required to the effects of long term poverty on the personalities, life habits, defence mechanisms, thinking styles, of disadvantaged populations, and corresponding competencies are essential to counter these effects, especially as they relate to learning difficulties.

2. Competencies related to the dynamics of inter-personal relationships with the community and its individual members, especially in connection with actions designed for enhancing self-worth, self-confidence, independence, self-reliance, and assertiveness of disadvantaged populations.

3. Competencies related to work as a change agent within the tolerance limits of the political, social and cultural milieu of disadvantaged populations.

In addition, several specific competencies related to the following, were identified as being essential for teachers and other educational personnel supporting rural transformation:

a) translation from contrived learning to real life situation learning, including changing from sequencing in terms of discipline structure to that of the rhythm of the real life situation;

b) deformalisation of formal learning, and development of hybrid formal-informal learning episodes;

c) analysis of real life situations for learnable content, and providing convergence with content in existing curricula;

d) utilization of development personnel, programmes, and materials (such as materials from the extension services of agriculture and other national building departments), as sources of content, and development of learning episodes for such content;

e) utilization for delivery of education, of indigenous communication centres and knowledge flow mechanisms, such as the market place, temple, mosque, devale, church, tea shop, toddy tavern, and forms of indigenous entertainment, such as folk songs and dances, puppet shows, religious festivals, rural drama;

f) specific skills such as for literacy and numeracy, dealing with a wide range of ages, experiences and learning styles of learners, mixed classes of varying characteristics and entry behaviours, learners with learning difficulties, varying learning times, intermittent learning, use of mass media, as well as a variety of management skills at the learning session and for utilizing resources for the learning sessions including non-educational personnel such as craftsmen, farmers, astrologers, devil dancers, religious personnel, local opinion leaders, extension officers, other civil servants.

The provision of such competencies at teacher education institutions would entail major changes in the staffing pattern, with the utilization of a variety of personnel associated with rural transformation becoming staff of the institution on a part-time or full-time basis. The nature of reference documentation at these institutions would also need to change, to accommodate potential content sources such as from the nation building departments, and studies and investigations of sociological, anthropological, economic and other characteristics, especially of disadvantaged populations. Time and work schedule organizations, management patterns, financial arrangements would also require drastic changes, to accommodate frequent and intensive interaction with target communities. In all the countries represented at the

Seminar, examples were available, of at least initiatory movements in this direction, and several other examples were discussed from Bangladesh, Bhutan, Pakistan, Thailand, Sri Lanka, India, Burma, the Philippines and Nepal.

The education system is but a part of the larger system of learning in a society. The alleged irrelevance and isolation from the community which it is expected to serve, suggests that there is a barrier between the education system and the immediate community. This barrier isolates the learning in the school from the learning outside it, and hinders the mobility and facility of people, ideas and communication. Member States, in their efforts to develop "poverty strategies" have, through recent policies and actions, given clear indication that this barrier has to disappear, and as a result, the trend towards the education system as a focus for rural transformation appears to be gaining ground very rapidly throughout the region. It was agreed that teacher education must make rapid and radical changes to cope with, and help promote this trend in spite of obvious and severe constraints, in the most rational, most efficient and least traumatic manner possible. Considering the political urgency for eradication of poverty in Member States, the time available for such changes may be very short indeed.

SUMMARY

Chapter One

- *Linkages between schools (their conditions and curricula) and teacher education institutions are essential to remove the isolation of these institutions from the realities of field situations.*
- *Participating directly in the educational reform programmes, from design aspects to implementation and monitoring, is an effective strategy that teacher education institutions can use in making their own programmes relevant to the needs of the country.*
- *Competence specific teacher education designs are becoming increasingly important, especially in the context of the urgency for training large numbers of teachers.*

Training of educational personnel

- *With greater emphasis on disadvantaged populations, the implications of sustained poverty conditions on learning, become priority issues for teacher education programmes.*
- *Deformalisation of the formal system of education, and enhancement of formal-informal hybrid modes for the delivery of education to a variety of populations at intermittent time periods, have fundamental implications for content and methodologies being considered for teacher education programmes.*
- *The significant stress on the contribution of education to rural transformation provides signals for radical changes in the content, methodologies, organizational patterns, staffing, and financing aspects of teacher education programmes and institutions.*

Chapter Two

NEW TECHNIQUES IN THE PREPARATION OF EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL

Moduiar modes

If modular learning is to be thought of as something more than merely old toddy in new casks, the concept must be clearly defined. Its various components may be identified in the following manner. It is a series of carefully structured and sequenced self-instructional learning units whose learning outcomes have been specified, usually comprising at least some written/printed materials, whereby learners may work at their own pace; the printed materials may be supplemented by other media, by face-to-face instruction and practical work, and by remedial and enrichment modules. They are likely to include external or internal evaluation systems.

The most well known kind of modular learning are correspondence courses which have proved effective in countries of the region and elsewhere as far separated as Australasia and the Arab States where the UNWRA/Unesco Institute of Education is sited. The units of the correspondence-type courses are interrelated, and they follow a regular progression of learning. They are accompanied by tutorial sessions, newsletters and often radio, so that they tend to be multi-media. The Iqbal (Open) University in Pakistan has used a number of these multi-media techniques of printed materials, radio, television, slides, tapes and other methods.

The modular methods are suited to intermittent learners, either in-service teachers as in the UNRWA system where teachers can gather for tutorial instruction only at several week intervals, or when, as in the Philippines Distance Study System, instruction must be delivered to rural areas or to people who

have no ready access to educational institutions. It allows the target population to learn the elements and skills associated with improving nutrition, for example, at their own speed and in their own time, even though they are studying for a credit course.

Many varieties of modular systems have been or are being used in teacher education in the region. They are used for both in-service and pre-service programmes, but most often for teachers in areas remote from the teacher education institutions, as in the Far West Region of Nepal. There, packages are provided for teachers who study on their own and then come during the long summer vacations to face-to-face sessions with qualified (Institute of Education) tutors travelling to the area. Similarly, in Malaysia and in Sri Lanka, where teacher enhancement programmes for in-service training are provided for, giving teachers additional competencies associated with new curricula and knowledge of content matter. In Burma and in India, similar approaches are used for teacher education. Modules of correspondence materials in some States of India, for example, follow on after a year of learning in the teacher education institution, and face-to-face sessions follow the period of correspondence education. Other programmes have modules that are essentially for content improvement in a subject area. In Thailand, modular methods are used for teacher education in pre-service programmes whereby teacher educators and curriculum developers produce adjunct modules in support of regular pre-service training in science competencies.

This variety of methods within the modular mode shows the many attempts to define specific competencies to be enhanced in the individual teacher and to provide learning materials for these special competencies. The format of the module lends itself to this operation. The act of producing modules feeds back into a greater clarity of defining competencies for learners under instruction.

The advantages of self pacing and non-institutional characteristics are that the modules can fit into intermittent learning situations at suitable times for learners, particularly in teacher in-service programmes. But the module writers have to take this intermittent learning into account and reinforce the previous

module by providing reviews at the beginning of each module that follows, a technique requiring considerable skill.

Major difficulties have been encountered in the region for the introduction in the modular mode of more than just verbal exposure for learners, for example, with practical work and field work used in conjunction with the written materials. In the Philippines Distance Study System, practical work is integrated with the theory, and both the theory and the practice must progress together. A further facet of the Philippine experience is that the practical work (nutrition or other subject matter planned) is placed in the real life work of the community, and involves both application of knowledge and intervention in the community as part of the practical work. Face to face work associated with modular instruction also requires careful design in terms of function and timing. A major problem is that learners (unless they have had interaction through correspondence) have accumulated a series of difficulties, and therefore a heterogeneous collection of gaps in their knowledge. If only specific gaps are filled out, the learning pattern will not be complete for any individual learner. So the face-to-face sessions can be expected to have to deal with a variety of remedial situations other than specific gaps in knowledge. This comes about from a variety of sources such as: inadequate entry behaviours, the complexity of the subject matter being taught, and design faults in the modules themselves.

Although the modular method has shown itself in the region to be flexible, there are serious problems in writing the modular materials. Sequencing can prove difficult for writers. The design of self-evaluation inside the module has difficult aspects. Factual recall questions are easy to write, but the production of application or higher order type questions that are meaningful and contextual to "anonymous" learners are difficult to construct and may become mere guesswork even when the writers possess the technical skills to produce these items. An effective management system is also required, so that modular materials can be written, perhaps tested, and delivered on time to the client learner, and the necessary face-to-face sessions arranged for. Printing of such materials is likely to consume large quantities of paper that must be purchased on time. Initial development costs may also be high, although these may be subsumed in later mass "sales" of the materials.

Training of educational personnel

The introduction of modules in school learning, as has occurred already in some countries in the region such as Indonesia, the Philippines, Republic of Korea, has implications for teacher education institutions. Teachers must be trained to assume a different classroom role, that of a facilitator or classroom manager, who intervenes only when pupils are having difficulties and who can take decisions on sound psychological grounds and be able to allocate remedial or enrichment modules to appropriate learners. These very special competencies presuppose that a teacher has been trained in remedial techniques, has the ability to teach reading skills when required, and recommend supplementary materials for the faster learners. The Indonesian development schools in eight of teacher education institutions for secondary level teachers, are facing these problems, as well as problems of finding and training competent writers.

It is advisable to consider and study the modular system applied to Technical and Vocational Education as well as that introduced in Vocational Training by ILO. Although the concept of technical modular system may seem apparently different from that of general education, it could generate new ideas for solving the problems of the in-service teacher training. The blocking or the division of the profession into some independent units to be studied when needed and when possible, would also be profitable in the preparation of educational personnel.

In general it is clear from experiences of the region that the strengths of the modular approach lie in its outreach for disadvantaged groups or teachers in remote outposts, but it does not follow that the method is a panacea for all situations. The costs of developing and producing large quantities of materials and establishing adequate management systems have to be offset against the obvious advantages. The seminar discussions did make it apparent that the greatest worth was during in-service teacher programmes rather than for regular institutional training. But given the modular forms of learning that are beginning to appear for in school and out-of-school situations, teachers have to be trained to facilitate and manage such learning. Hence exposure in teacher education institutions to problems and issues of pupils learning through modular methods, and to the modular modes themselves, become essential features of teacher education.

Material aids

Several types of material aids for learning and the problems of using them were considered. It was suggested that a basic dichotomy be recognized between those material aids which are commercially produced and relatively expensive and complicated to use, and those which could be identified as being of low cost and low complexity. It quickly became apparent in the discussion that this dichotomy was a commonly held notion with relevance as an organizing principle for approaching the problems of function, usage and maintenance.

A parallel dichotomy of considerable importance was brought up separating the types and usage of material aids in the training of teachers, and the types and usage of materials which teachers might be expected to use in schools and non-formal educational settings.

It was rather firmly established early on that these dichotomies are useful conceptual tools for thinking of the overall problem, but that they are not water-tight divisions. A general thesis was proposed that the matching of the function of the material to the learning situation was of primary importance and should be considered as the single most important criterion for consideration. For example, in teacher education, adequate conceptual development of certain science topics could require expensive material such as films. To enhance the contact between the teacher education institution and the real life and conditions of the schools in remote areas may require the use of video tape recorders. However the use of, say, slide projectors in the training of methodological skills for teacher trainees who are to work in rural areas, would be unrealistic and indeed frustrating for these trainees, since they would not have such equipment to use in rural schools.

Other criteria, closely related to that of matching function to need, were those of; (a) availability of software, (b) maintenance facilities, (c) recurrent costs, and (d) costs relative to specific societies.

The entire question of material aids to be used in teacher education, and subsequently in school and non-formal learning,

needs serious reconsideration. Highly visible to most participants was the discrepancy between the materials available in teacher education institutions and those finally available to the practising teacher.

The need for teacher trainees to be more actively involved in the study, construction, and use of material aids which could serve their own learning needs and the learning needs of school and non-formal learners cannot be overemphasized. This involves not only contrived aids, but the knowledge and use of common functional materials to be found within the community, such as kitchen utensils, farm implements, indigenous toys.

The training may be thought of as providing competencies in "seeing", in a variety of household and other items, potentiality for use as aids in learning situations. The training would naturally require exposure to the actual use of "large variety of such common items in different learning situations.

In addition, specially with the thrust of education making its contribution to rural transformation, the range of potential learning aids suitable for use by teachers in rural areas increases substantially. Equipment such as bio-gas plants, water wheels, irrigation pumps, animal driven equipment, solar heaters, sanitary latrines, compost pits and fish ponds should now enter the list of material aids for learning in teacher education programmes.

While the training of teachers in the skills of using local materials, waste materials, and other low-cost items for making learning aids were being considered by the Seminar participants, it was recognized that what may be "waste" in an urban setting may well be high cost items, or items unavailable, in rural areas. A wide-mouthed bottle may well be a throw-away item in affluent urban society, but it becomes a precious high cost storage container in a remote rural home. It is essential that teacher education institutions become intimately aware of the kinds of low cost local materials and items that are available.

Many rural schools are in reality bare, unattractive, bleak learning spaces. Charts, learning aids, especially those produced from local materials and other colourful items, can assist greatly in making the learning spaces less drab. They can also

serve as a significant initiation into the world of symbols and their meaning, in pre-literate societies, which are often devoid of such items, if the community surrounding the school can also have visual access to these items. Such exposures have been found to be essential prerequisites for initiating programmes for literacy in these communities.

There was a strong need to do more in the way of incorporating teaching aids, and instructions for their use, into the curriculum materials prepared for teacher and learner use. Fold-out charts, cut-outs, tracing for transparencies and blackboard use are some of the possibilities, thus ensuring that the teacher has a minimum set or package of material aids for learning available which he knows how to use and can use freely.

One of the most fundamental problems can perhaps best be stated as the great need for a more realistic and practical approach to the study of attitudes, taxonomy, suitability (both financial and cultural) and appropriateness of the complete range of material aids in all learning situations, and in particular, in disadvantaged rural situations. While there exist many texts and studies on various aspects of those problems, no one source or collection of sources exists which brings the problem to the point of local, specific and contemporary relevance. If one conclusion can be reached, it is that the topic of material aids in teacher education is of a highly complex nature, requiring a great deal of further study and experimentation.

Assessment

Assessments are made of a trainee's or teacher's progress in pre-service or in-service courses, and are needed to determine how effective a teacher is as an agent of learning. It is usual to carry out an assessment during courses, after consideration of the trainee's skills, knowledge and abilities, in a number of components which teacher educators regard as essential if a trainee is to be an effective teacher.

At present it is much easier to assess separately the components of a teacher's collection of talents. This is because so much has been done to dissect the elements of behaviour and

knowledge which have been judged to be necessary for a teacher. At its simplest, an assessment is made of the trainee's knowledge of subject matter, and of his knowledge of and ability to practice teaching methods.

It is usual to score the various elements in the assessment, and then to give a teacher a performance rating (or assessment of anticipated performance) by summing the scores or finding an arithmetical mean. This practice has led to many arguments as to the relative importance of the various components. Frequently complex weighting and adjusting systems are used.

Consideration should be given to using the product of scores (or a geometric mean) for assembling scores. If a scale, which has zero as its lowest score, is used, this would ensure that an unsatisfactory (zero) score in an essential element would result in a final score of zero, no matter how high scores were for other elements. It would also give a better score for a student with an even performance than for those whose poor marks would be compensated by high ones in other elements using a summing or arithmetic mean system.

To illustrate, a very simple system of scoring for knowledge of content and teaching method ability which uses a scale of 0 to 4, with 0 being assigned to an unacceptable performance and 4 to excellence, may be considered, and the following comparison of scores can be made:

Student	Knowledge	Teaching method ability	Sum	Product
A	2	2	4	4
B	3	1	4	3
C	4	0	4	0
D	0	4	4	0

There is a powerful case for any assessment of the effectiveness of a teacher to be based on his ability to assemble all his skills and knowledge in a learning situation. And the best indication of effectiveness is the change in pupil performance brought about by the teacher. Moreover, diagnostic assessment conducted during courses should be based on an anticipation of the learning outcome to be expected from the trainee or teacher on the course. 22

It will not be easy to determine criteria if one judges a teacher's effectiveness by examining the performance of his pupils. The extent of the pupils' abilities before benefiting from the teacher's intervention must be known. The advantages and disadvantages of the students' home and school circumstances must be allowed for. Further, if the learning outcome of a lesson or series of lessons does not match the expectations of the curricula objectives, it may well be because the teaching material is unsatisfactory, or the objectives are not realizable.

An added difficulty is that teaching practice sessions are seldom long enough for a true assessment to be made of teacher effectiveness. In spite of the inherent difficulties, a start might be possible, especially at the primary level where, as a minimum requirement, tests of pupil achievement in arithmetic and language might be used to assess teacher performance. Certainly the activities and work of pupils in a practice class should be studied in assessments of teacher trainees.

In spite of all these problems, national assessment of student achievement carried out in Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines and Thailand are providing indications of the effectiveness of the entire educational system in these countries. In each case, valuable lessons have been obtained of teacher performance in general though not of individuals.

In many countries of Asia, it is clear that teaching methods of the past will not solve the problems involved in providing universal education. In many cases, teacher education will have to prepare teachers for roles and tasks not foreseen in Asia or elsewhere. In many countries, teacher educators have little influence on the selection of trainees, and are under pressure to pass almost all trainees through their courses. In these conditions, the purpose of assessment is almost confined to diagnosis, as there is no question of a final negative rating of a potential teacher.

In these circumstances, the work now going on in curriculum development projects in the region, leading to a mastery learning system or to the definition of a learning continuum which is attainable by almost all children, is specially important. A definition of a minimum acceptable performance by the teacher

trainees, based on the minimum necessary competencies for teachers will have to be prepared, where a rapid expansion of the school system is being planned or undertaken.

Given the shortage of resources, particularly of time, pre-service courses based on a mastery of a minimum of teacher competencies, with continuing educational opportunities to extend these competencies, will have to be provided. These in-service learning opportunities can also serve as a basis for teachers entering the profession at a modest professional level, and later, to qualify themselves for more responsible educational posts. With so little time available, mistakes in the evaluation of the outcome of the pre-service learning episodes nor of the succeeding in-service learning packages cannot be afforded. Moreover, at each point, the totality of the competencies achieved up to that time must be assessed.

Such a procedure will require a ruthless review of current teacher courses. This must be based on careful assessments of the effectiveness of every component of courses now in use.

As teacher education becomes dependent on continuing in-service education in addition to pre-service instruction, a system of designed stages and operations is necessary. The management of such a system involving Centres, master educators, teachers and pupils, will need continuous assessment, and improvement based on the assessment, if the investment in teacher education is to give true value to society.

Not only must the performance of teachers be assessed, but teachers must be equipped to assess pupil progress. An introduction of mastery learning in school course planning requires skill in the use of criteria referenced tests, remedial measures, summative evaluation, and in cases of real difficulty, compensatory activities for disadvantaged pupils.

The evaluation of cognitive skills receives a great deal of attention, of psychomotor skills much less, and of attitudes almost none - yet attitudes are of paramount importance to learning.

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Teachers must be sensitive to such affective elements in a child's development as open-mindedness, co-operativeness, originality and creativity. They must also be able to assess and

assist in the development of these qualities. Moreover the pupil's ability to marshal his skills in problem solving situations can give a valuable indication of his potential to serve the development of society.

Although an assessment of a teacher's performance as exemplified by the improved behaviour of pupils is difficult while a teacher is under training, it is not quite so difficult while a teacher is in service. In many cases so-called academic criteria are used for salary advancement and promotion. It might be wise if more consideration be given to the performance of a teacher when the question of salary improvement or promotion arises.

SUMMARY

Chapter Two

Modular modes

- *The movement towards specificity in defining minimum teacher competencies, the need for reaching large numbers of teachers in remote areas, are providing a boost to the use of modular modes in teacher education, though difficulties and constraints in the design, development and deployment of such materials is also recognized.*
- *Modular modes for learners are being used increasingly. Teacher education programmes have to recognize this trend in their designs by providing exposure to such modes to the trainees.*
- *Of special importance is the initiation of remedial and compensatory sequences for learners from disadvantaged populations, which demand special competencies from teachers, and corresponding changes in teacher education programmes.*

Material aids

- *The basic dichotomy between commercially produced expensive materials, and low cost teacher made items, has to be resolved with relevance as the organizing principle, related to function, cost, usage and maintenance.*

- *The matching of material aids in teacher education to the realities of the learning situation in the field is an essential attribute in selecting these aids.*
- *There is an urgent need for teacher trainees to be actively involved in the study, construction, and use of material aids.*
- *This involves not only contrived aids, but common functional materials found in the home and community such as kitchen utensils, farm implements, and indigenous toys, so that competencies in "seeing" in a variety of such items, potentiality for use as aids in learning situations, may be developed.*
- *With the thrust of education making its contribution to rural transformation, the range of material aids for learning increases, to include such items as bio-gas plants, irrigation pumps, solar heaters, sanitary latrines, compost pits and fish ponds.*
- *There is a strong need to do more in the way of incorporating aids, and instructions for their construction and use, in curriculum materials for the teacher and learner.*

Assessment

- *Although it is more common to assess a teacher's competence by examining the various competencies separately, more attention should be given to an assessment of the teacher's ability to marshal all his abilities in a learning situation. For this purpose, the best indicator of teacher performance is the change in ability of the pupil. A major difficulty is the resolution of the change in ability into the component produced by the teacher, and other components produced by "non-teacher" interventions.*
- *Where it is necessary to give an overall assessment of a teacher's potential competence after evaluating a number of components in his or her overall skill, it is suggested that this be done by finding the product or geometrical mean of the various marks rather than the sum or arithmetical mean.*

- *Techniques for the evaluation of the minimum acceptable performance of the teacher trainee at teacher education institutions, and subsequent additional competencies, are urgent, particularly in the context of mass and rapid training of teachers.*
- *An introduction of mastery learning in school course planning requires skill in the use of criteria referenced tests, remedial measures, and summative evaluation.*

Chapter Three

STRATEGIES FOR MASS IMPLEMENTATION

Dissemination of project experiences

Many of the educational innovations in the countries of the region involve major systems transformation which are typically very ambitious in terms of the resources invested in them and in terms of the large expectations sought at the end of the intervention. The Seminar discussion focused first on methods of understanding the theoretical aspects of the changes anticipated.

These innovations injected into a society or nation, might be understood as aspects of directed and deliberate culture change, a planned intervention into the fabric of the culture. The problems of spread that involve an understanding of the administrative bureaucracy need to be appreciated. The factors that would contribute to the acceptance or rejection of such innovations would also need to be recognized. Examples were given where the involvement of a doctor with family planning, and the use of a television for teaching purposes were not easily accepted by target populations, because of the traditional stereotypes that people had about these two agents: the doctor being associated with sickness (and family planning not defined as sickness traditionally), and television treated as cinema screen meant for entertainment and not for education. Old traditional media of delivery or transfer of knowledge are not necessarily inappropriate as vehicles for innovation. Nor do brand new ideas necessarily gain immediate acceptance merely because of their novelty. A society has its own processes of cultural screening and of cultural re-definition and re-interpretation.

Methods of commencing large scale projects in the bigger countries of the region were described. At least one country had been able to use several years of lead time to involve all levels

of educators before the changes were to begin. Planning of budgets, new science curricula and materials, the provision of new examinations for students affected by tryout schemes had all to be taken care of in Thailand prior to the initiation of the project activities. Such early warning systems and careful planning are obviously highly desirable. However, it was doubted if all the countries of the region have such time and such development facilities easily available. The changes sought are often massive innovations, inspired and controlled by a centralized education system, and activated by powerful political pressures which give tight time deadlines. The experience of western countries offers few guidelines, as their education systems are generally not so centralized and there is no administrative structure to effect changes in the educational patterns of such large target populations. Further, their educational innovations have been disseminated very slowly, often over 50-80 years, a luxury that developing countries cannot afford. Major curriculum changes in the whole range of subjects in a school system may have to be undertaken. There may not be time to base such changes on a carefully researched theory worked out by the academic educators of the country. Nor does comparative education generally provide reliable guidelines for operational programmes of such an ambitious scale.

The innovative strategies adopted are many and various. The concepts may start from the conclusions of national assessments or evaluations of particular aspects of the educational scene. They may start from reports and observations of school practices thought to be too theoretical, as in East Malaysia in the 1960s when curriculum teams were sent in to develop core curricula in the junior secondary system. A newly emergent country might adapt the examination system of a metropolitan or colonial country to suit its own purposes, as has been going on in various Pacific territories. But in general, developing countries may not be able to wait for research findings from their own national studies for which data will in any case be frequently incomplete or unreliable. A national assessment or a major educational commission may not be able to pull together even the available data into a succinct report or make the necessary intuitive leaps to reasonable conclusions where data is incomplete.

Pilot projects themselves may be under some suspicion if they remain too long as pilot projects. Various examples, such as in the Philippines and in Indonesia, could be studied to see how soon they are likely to disseminate their results. In some of the very large countries of the region like, for example, Indonesia, it is possible to study pilot projects in all stages of development from the concept stage of the small schools projects in Kalimantan and Sulawesi, the open schools being planned to absorb many thousands of new primary school graduates in out-of-school programmes, to the more advanced Pamong project in Central Java and the well advanced modular systems of the eight development schools attached to senior teacher education institutions. Other such examples may be found in India, Pakistan and Bangladesh. By looking beyond their early Hawthorne effects, it is possible to pick those which have become stuck firmly in a development stage, and which will not lead to effective dissemination into the wider national system.

Large mass programmes, like the Third Education Project in Indonesia or the Curriculum and Textbooks Project in the Philippines, may not in fact have developed from pilot projects but from an earlier, perhaps more rudimentary projects, like the Indonesian Book Project that produced millions of primary textbooks and guides but did not provide any training in the use of these materials. Other projects might spring from well developed but sub-sectoral projects such as the Science Education Project in the Philippines. The manuscripts of the earlier Indonesian project were taken over by the new project, tried out in a sample of schools, revised, printed and distributed for pupils and training programmes. The experience of the Science Education Project was the basis of the current massive Curriculum and Textbooks Project in the Philippines, including organizational aspects and infrastructures for implementation.

So, in the Indonesian experience a project pattern had already been established, but management systems had still to change with the introduction of the new project implementation unit in the capital, in accordance with World Bank guidelines, and sub-units in the provinces to control project finances, book distribution and in-service teacher training. During the early

life of the project the government had instituted administrative changes of its own that affected district boundaries and brought the appointments of many new school inspectors. These were unforeseen changes that affected project operations and training programmes. The same project also acquired major additional tasks with the introduction of a new primary curriculum, the appointment of many thousands of new primary teachers involving the reprinting of textbooks and additional training programmes. A new emphasis on the state philosophy involved still further training programmes undertaken by the project.

In the Philippines both the essential project patterns and prototypes of management systems had been established for some years, and tested in field situations. The major and fundamental issue became the modalities of translation of this valuable experience to a much larger scale and diversity of components.

Even though projects of this magnitude may have gone through many phases of pre-investment studies and appraisals at the outset, unexpected events will frequently occur in design and implementation, so that much problem solving will have to be undertaken by professional officials perhaps already involved in other tasks. These professionals may not be well supported by an administrative infrastructure which has been geared mainly to maintenance and not to development, even though the regular units of the Education Ministry may have been supplemented by additional staff appointed solely for the project. Domestic and overseas training and technical co-operation among nations with similar programmes may help to alleviate the effects of some of these shortages of competent personnel.

Experiences, such as those from Pakistan, the Rep. of Korea, Indonesia, Rep. of Maldives, Bangladesh and Thailand, emphasized the need for promotional work or early and continuous project support communication, to make the objectives of a project clear to educationists and a wider audience of parents and general public. Newspapers, magazines, radio and other media, including traditional communication media, must be used to win the widest possible acceptance of such major undertakings. Where the project intervention is implemented by centralized governmental machinery, this should not be as difficult as it

tends to be in practice. Such governmental machinery can provide very strong support to schemes they strongly approve, as has been seen in the Saemaul movement in the Rep. of Korea, the Adult Education and Universalization Programme in India, the Literacy Programmes in Burma, Iran and in the socialist countries. Plans and budgets need to be prepared in advance for such necessary promotional work. Some of the promotional work could be done by teachers and other officials as in the Rep. of Korea or by itinerant tutors as in Indonesia or by political party cadres as in Burma, or possibly the Imams of the mosques to be used to rejuvenate education in Pakistan and Bangladesh.

The important point is that appropriate traditional or modern media and infrastructures that have extensive reach must be used to gain acceptance and to overcome any reluctance of parents or public. No new system or sub-system of, for example, a series of agro-technical institutions in Pakistan, can be left on its own to work in mysterious isolation from the communities they serve. The work done by a project, and the materials produced, have a strong intrinsic promotional value if they are visible to client populations.

The push and pull strategies of marketing might be adapted by educationists to win acceptance of their products among their consumers. The channels used by business, for example, will influence consumer choice, theoretically therefore a 'push' strategy. The quality of the product itself and its relevance to consumers needs make the 'pull' strategy. In educational bureaucracies, the conservative administrative systems, designed originally for maintaining rather than innovating, are serious barriers to educational reform. Nevertheless their very strengths may be channelled to enhance the 'push' effects if their strong influences can be brought to bear on selected, critical points of the systems, by working or "appearing" to work within thresholds of bureaucratic risks and tolerances which a particular system is prepared to accommodate. For example, the power of a bureaucratic system may be combined with the overwhelming influence of an examination system in an educational reform, by using the bureaucratic machinery for changing the examination system towards innovation, thereby mobilising a considerable 'push' effect

on the dissemination of reform, as exhibited in the educational reforms in Sri Lanka. The bureaucratic palatability of relatively few institutions (in this case elementary teacher education institutions) being subject to relatively easy "control" has permitted a start to be made towards a major educational innovation in local, specific decentralized curriculum development in India. The Presidential Decree 6A in the Philippines, cleared the way for a host of actions culminating in the current extensive educational reform movement. Actions by development and nation building departments to help the education system in its contribution to rural transformation have been readily forthcoming when these actions were done in the framework of conserving the identity of these departments. However attempting to integrate or co-ordinate their actions, thereby causing them to forego their identity, have failed miserably, as seen in many integrated rural development projects in the region.

It was generally appreciated that, although pre-investment studies and planning have preceded large projects in countries of the region, many of them are nevertheless ambitious in terms of the countries own resources. They are therefore likely to encounter unexpected problems and unexpected outcomes. Smaller, locally initiated innovations are more likely to be responses to immediate and locally important problems, and there is less likelihood of gaps between design and implementation. They may be more successful because they are more visible and less controversial in their smaller communities of interest. However, their replicability and their extensibility may be low because of their execution in a limited or "safe harbour" framework. Larger national projects must often deliberately run greater risks, particularly where there are changes of policy from above that make it even more difficult for perhaps an inadequate administrative infrastructure to cope with unexpected outcomes. Full use of public media can help overcome many problems of large scale projects. So would a flexible mechanism for "rolling plans" which provide for assimilation and accommodation and yet move the project, on the principle of successive approximations, towards the ultimate goal of wide dissemination into the national education system.

Continuing education

Continuing education of teachers has been present in education systems in the region for several decades, and most prominently in the recent past in support of the implementation of new curricula. There are new visible attempts in several countries, such as the Philippines, Thailand, Sri Lanka, Malaysia, Pakistan, India, on rationalizing the in-service programme into the specified services they are to deliver.

The requirement for rapid training of large number of teachers has given serious consideration to the delivery of a minimum package of competencies at mastery levels, at pre-service institutions, followed by a subsequent layering pattern, where continuing education would provide for further packages of competencies, again at mastery level. Thus a close and functional inter-relationship between pre- and in-service continuing education would be established, which together will contribute to the gradual enhancement of teacher quality.

A second dimension of the rationalization involves the identification of implementation problems and issues at the school level related to the performance of teachers in the major curriculum reform. Continuing education is to be designed very specifically to meet these shortfalls. Some overlap between these two dimensions would be inevitable and designs for continuing education will have to take particular care that they reinforce these two purposes.

The above are essentially actions related to the current status of competence requirements of teachers. The third dimension pushes the purposes of continuing education into the future, in recognizing that teachers will need to have competencies to deal with new problems as education systems and societies develop. Associated with this is the function of continuing education in the context of lifelong education, the acquisition of the skills of "learning to learn" and the pervasive principle of the continuous nature of education. This dimension too would develop additional functional relationships between pre-service and continuing education.

These relationships of pre-service to continuing education imply a variety of interactions and interchanges for continuity,

integration and feedback mechanisms, so as to insure that no one institution, programme or level of training becomes isolated from others. The use of teacher education institutions as centres for curriculum development tryout and even for decentralized local specific curriculum development and continuing education, such as in some countries in the region, was recognized as a positive move in this direction.

While the above has been stated in terms of teachers, continuing education must apply to all levels of educational personnel, and in the context of their respective task specifications, at least the second and third dimensions indicated above would need to apply to these as well so as to prevent dysfunctional elements within the education systems.

The motivation for continuing education raises very complicated problems which such words like "incentive" would gloss over. The sources for or against motivation could be as varied as intrinsic personality issues to economic issues such as costs of travel or extra-occupational income (such as tuitions, farming, commercial work done to supplement the meagre income from being a teacher) foregone by teachers and other personnel while they attend continuing education sessions. A variety of incentives for attending such sessions have been attempted in the countries of the region, the commonest being subsidized travel and daily expenses. Provision of certificates has also been used, which carries little incentive unless it is geared to some form of reward system, such as earning salary increments, or promotions or certification for practising as a teacher. It would seem that all the above incentives, or authoritarian compulsion at the other end of the spectrum, have only partially succeeded in energizing educational personnel to participate consistently in continuing education, and such programmes still await a surefire technique of realistically attracting these personnel to continuing education programmes.

The distance of travel to gain continuing education is certainly an inhibiting factor, especially in terms of cost, time and effort. Several countries in the region such as the Philippines, Malaysia, Sri Lanka, Bhutan, Burma, Thailand, Pakistan, India, Rep. of Korea, Rep. of Maldives, Bangladesh, Indonesia, and

Nepal have initiated programmes for the establishment of decentralized resource centres, sometimes called teacher centres, for teacher and other educational personnel. The design involves providing resources for continuing education as close to the place of work of the personnel as possible. The Philippines has a very extensive knowledge flow network of decentralized resource centres at the primary school level linked to others at the higher district, regional and national levels. A variety of institutions have been used for such purposes, including elementary teacher education institutions, secondary schools, even primary schools or specially established centres catering to educational personnel in the neighbourhood. Bhutan has developed a system of mobile units for the delivery of educational resources to remote places.

These decentralized resource centres should not be one way channels for knowledge flow, but sensitive "radar" stations as well, which would send up the network specific requirements of the client populations, and relay back to the clients their requested requirements in continuing education.

One serious problem in the lack of motivation is the "mismatch" between personal teacher aspirations and the needs of the educational establishment. If a better match could be made, the chances of motivation could improve significantly. In this context, the possibility of client control of the decentralized resource centres, especially with the "radar mechanism" built into the flow system, may trigger off enhanced participation of teachers in their own development. Some actions in this direction are being initiated, such as through the "cluster schools" strategy in Thailand and Burma, and in the use of recently trained teachers, training other potential island teachers at atoll community education centres, in the Rep. of Maldives.

There is no doubt that much agitation, rethinking, and enthusiasm is being focused upon the continuing education of teachers, from a variety of directions. The need for a strong element of research in planning for and implementing programmes of continuing education is keenly felt. National educational authorities must have access to conceptual and empirical studies which will point the way to provide the most appropriate means with which to strengthen and reinforce continuing education.

SUMMARY

Chapter Three

- *Many educational innovations involve major systems transformations. They may be understood as aspects of deliberate intervention into the fabric of the culture. In this context it should be recognized that a society has its own processes of cultural screening, redefinition and reinterpretation.*
- *Long-term planning for all aspects of mass implementation and early warning of the variety of agencies that may be involved is an effective strategy, shown to be effective in supporting mass implementation. However, the political and other realities may not permit such systematic and long-term action.*
- *Often developing countries may not be able to await detailed research findings before mass implementation. Action research and rolling reform are effective techniques in mass implementation under time constraints.*
- *The sharing of experiences of countries in the region, in their pilot to mass implementation changes, would be most valuable.*
- *Appropriate traditional and modern media and infrastructures that have extensive reach must be used to gain acceptance and overcome resistance, as some of the modalities of project support communication prior to, and during, implementation.*
- *The "push and pull" strategies of marketing might well be adpated by educationists to win acceptance of their products among the consumers.*
- *While bureaucracies and administrative systems are generally geared to "maintaining" rather than "innovating", and may present serious barriers to educational innovation, nevertheless, their very strengths may be channelled to enhance the "push" effects if their strong influences are brought to bear on critical points of the system, by working, or "appearing" to work, within the thresholds of bureaucratic risks and tolerances which a particular system is prepared to accommodate.*

Continuing education

- *Among the major reasons for rethinking and redesigning continuing education of educational personnel and rationalising and interlinking it closely with pre-service education are: the delivery of a minimum package of competencies at mastery levels, at pre-service education institutions, followed by a subsequent layering pattern with continuing education providing for further competencies; the remediation of implementation problems in the field situation; and the need for educational personnel to have competencies to deal with new problems as the education systems and societies develop.*
- *Relationships of pre-service education to continuing education imply a variety of interactions and interchanges for continuity, integration and feedback mechanisms, so as to ensure that no one institution, programme, or level, becomes isolated from others.*
- *The problem of motivation for continuing education is serious, and as yet suitable comprehensive solutions have not been found.*
- *The distance of travel to gain continuing education is a serious inhibiting factor.*
- *The establishment of decentralised resource centres within easy reach of the client populations, and sensitive to the needs of these populations, would provide one mechanism for propagating effective and relevant continuing education.*
- *A strong element of research in planning for, and implementing programmes of continuing education is keenly felt.*

Chapter Four

ROLE OF UNESCO PERSONNEL

Unesco field personnel placed at the disposal of national programmes for education are often designated as "expert", "consultant" or "specialist". The first two terms have administrative and contractual significance in Unesco's management system. The third term is coming into use because of dissatisfaction on the part of many with the terms "expert" and "consultant", although the term "specialist" has no special legal significance in the Unesco administration.

Especially when the word "expert" is used in conjunction with the word "counterpart", many governments and national professionals feel that it has a connotation of superiority and certainly implies a one way flow of expertise and experience. A serious effect of the use of the term "expert" is that it can give a false impression to newly recruited experts of their role in national educational development. Sensitive and accurate briefing can alleviate this problem, but it requires an understanding of the current relationship between Unesco and Member States by all concerned.

The Seminar noted marked changes in the role of Unesco field personnel in education over the past two decades. In the late 1950s and early 1960s, "experts" were sent to newly independent countries to fill gaps in the national administrative structure. Although a national or "counterpart" was often assigned to work alongside the Unesco field staff member, the Unesco official had executive and administrative functions. Thus he might serve as the director of a teacher education institution and many were assigned virtually full-time class teaching responsibilities. Unesco still recruits educators to serve in this way, but only in a few of the least developed countries.

Training of educational personnel

A little more often now, Unesco field staff are directly involved in the identification of needs, problems and solutions, and with the formulation of policies and plans for governments, although it is rare for them to be responsible for such activities.

With the strengthening of national educational structures and the emergence of well qualified national professional staff, the majority of Unesco field personnel have assumed an advisory role, or have undertaken specific research or training tasks defined by national educators. It is common to find the long-term "expert" acting in an advisory or consultative role, and for the more specific tasks to be undertaken by short-term "consultants".

To indicate the changing role of Unesco field personnel, terms such as "technical assistance", "transfer of technology" and "expertise" are gradually being superseded by "technical co-operation" and "indigenous development".

Further evolution is apparent in the region. A new phrase has arisen in recent years: "Technical Co-operation between Developing Countries" or TCDC.

This involves mutual and direct learning and sharing of experiences among those involved in similar educational development tasks. The Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development was one of the first to propagate the organized use of the concept of TCDC in Unesco associated programmes in education. In these changing circumstances the words "expert" or "consultant" and even "specialist" become inappropriate and reference is often made to "resource person participant".

While the deployment of long-term or short-term Unesco field personnel is still required in many developing countries, the importance of equal partnership between Unesco and national colleagues is becoming recognized.

Throughout the discussion, stress was laid on the importance of the awareness that all projects are national and that primary responsibility rests with governments. When governments are quite clear on what they wish to achieve with the co-operation of Unesco, this will be well reflected in job descriptions, and thus the chances of recruiting more useful Unesco field personnel

are increased. In many cases, government institutions have been able to participate in the briefing of newly recruited field personnel by correspondence, prior to their appointment. This has led to such people becoming functional and operational immediately after their arrival in the countries of the region.

It was recognized that all concerned, Unesco, the governments and the individual Unesco field staff member, must co-operate to ensure the greatest benefit from the presence of the Unesco specialist. This will include some assistance and consideration with respect to language difficulties and personal matters such as housing and education for children. It will also require a willingness on the part of the expatriate to adapt his life style and method of work to the situation he finds himself in.

The role of Unesco field personnel is not an isolated issue with respect to a country and Unesco co-operation. A continuing dialogue or mutual consultation on all aspects of education between countries and Unesco can be the basis for better identification of the tasks and responsibilities of Unesco field personnel. This can lead to better recruitment and a more effective performance of the Unesco specialists.

SUMMARY

Chapter Four

- *The nature of the role of the Unesco field staff member has evolved over the years from an executive to an advisory function. No matter what the function of the Unesco specialist's role may be, it is always the government that is responsible for programme activities.*
- *The need for careful and sensitive briefing by both Unesco and governments and for co-operation between Unesco, governments and individual officials is stressed.*
- *With such new modalities as TCDC, the role of the Unesco field personnel is not an isolated issue with respect to a country and Unesco co-operation. A continuing dialogue and mutual co-operation between countries and Unesco can be the basis for better task and responsibility identification.*

ANNEXES

AND

APPENDIX

ANNEX I

AGENDA

A. Developing alternative approaches in the preparation of educational personnel:

- Relationship between teacher education, and school and out-of-school curricula (development and implementation).
- Relationship between teacher education and actions for rural transformation.

B. Facilitating development and application of new techniques for the preparation of educational personnel:

- Modular modes for learning in teacher education programmes.
- Material aids for learning in teacher education programmes.
- Assessment in teacher education programmes.

C. Categories for post-project implementation:

- Diffusion of experiences of the project into the national education system.
- Reinforcement of continuing education for educational personnel.

D. Role of the Unesco Specialist in the national context.

ANNEX II

LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

Participants

Afghanistan	Mr. Mohammad Gurbuz President, Teacher Training Ministry of Higher Education, Kabul
	Mr. W. Liversidge Unesco Senior Expert Assistance to Teacher Education c/o UNDP, P.O. Box 5, Kabul
Bangladesh	Mrs. Quazi Jahan Ara Khan Director Academy for Fundamental Education Mymensingh
	Dr. Labiba Salah Unesco Senior Adviser in Primary Teacher Training Academy for Fundamental Education Mymensingh
Bhutan	Mr. Nado Rinchhen Director of Education Department of Education Ministry of Development Tashichhodzong, Thimphu
	Dr. A. Raoof Unesco Senior Expert in Teacher Education and Team Leader Teacher Development Centre Teacher Training Institute, Samchi

Indonesia	Mr. Soeprapto Director of Teacher Training Department of Education, Jakarta
	Mr. W.M. Matheson Unesco Team Leader, IDA-III Unesco, Jalan Thamrin 14 Tromol Pos 273/Jkt, Jakarta
Korea, Rep. of	Mr. Byung Joo Lee Administrative Officer Ministry of Education, Seoul
Maldives, Rep. of	Mr. Mohamed Zahir Hussain Deputy Minister of Education Ministry of Education, Male
	Mr. J.R. Huntington Unesco Adviser for Primary Education and Project Team Leader c/o Educational Project Office Ministry of Education, Male
Pakistan	Dr. Mukhtar Ahmad Bhatti Deputy Educational Adviser Ministry of Education, Islamabad
	Mr. R. Lemoine Unesco Adviser in Agro-Tech. Education and Teacher Training Curriculum Wing Ministry of Education, Islamabad
Thailand	Mr. Panom Kawkamnerd Deputy Director-General Department of Teacher Training Ministry of Education, Bangkok
	Mr. Chan Krergmatukorn Dean, Faculty of Education Chiangmai University, Chiangmai

Thailand (cont'd)	Dr. Sangad Utranand Head, Department of Elementary Education Chiangmai University, Chiangmai
	Dr. Nida Sapianchai Deputy Director Institute for the Promotion of Teaching Science and Technology Bangkok
Resource Person	Dr. A. Fineza Director, Distance Study System Ministry of Education and Culture Manila, Philippines
Secretariat (Unesco ROEAO, Bangkok)	Mr. A. Chiba Deputy Director
	Mr. J. Ratnaike Educational Adviser
	Mr. C.T Crellin Educational Adviser (Unesco/UNICEF Co-operative Programme)
	Dr. Y. Atal Regional Adviser for Social Sciences in Asia
	Dr. H.K. Paik Specialist in New Methods in Teacher Education (ACEID)

ANNEX III

SCHEDULE OF WORK

	October
Opening Ceremony	24 (p.m.)
Election of Office Bearers	
Descriptions of respective projects and exchange of experiences	
(Bureau Meeting)	24 (p.m.)
Exchange of experiences continued	25 (a.m.)

Agenda Topics

Relationship between teacher education and school and out-of-school curricula (development and implementation)	25 (p.m.)
Relationship between teacher education and actions for rural transformation	26 (a.m.)
Modular modes for learning in teacher education programmes	26 (p.m.)
Material aids for learning in teacher education programmes	27 (a.m.)
Assessment in teacher education programmes	27 (a.m./p.m.)
Diffusion of experiences of the project into the national education system	27 (p.m.)
(Bureau Meeting)	27 (p.m.)
Reinforcement of continuing education	28 (a.m.)
Role of Unesco Specialist in the national context	28 (p.m.)

SCHEDULE OF WORK (cont'd)

	October
Completion of Report	29 (a.m./p.m.)
(Bureau Meeting)	29 (a.m.)
Adoption of Report	30 (a.m.)

Daily Work Hours : 08.30 - 12.00 hrs.
14.00 - 17.00 hrs.

Daily Breaks : 10.00 - 10.30 hrs. - Coffee/Tea
12.00 - 14.00 hrs. - Lunch
15.00 - 15.30 hrs. - Coffee/Tea

ANNEX IV

LIST OF DOCUMENTS

Information Documents

ROEAO-78/EAU-TEPDIC/INF.1 - General Information

ROEAO-78/EAU-TEPDIC/INF.2 - List of Documents

ROEAO-78/EAU-TEPDIC/INF.3 - Provisional List of Participants

Working Documents

ROEAO-78/EAU-TEPDIC/1 - Agenda

ROEAO-78/EAU-TEPDIC/2 - Annotated Agenda

ROEAO-78/EAU-TEPDIC/3 - Schedule of Work

ROEAO-78/EAU-TEPDIC/4 - Country Discussion Paper

- Afghanistan
- Bangladesh
- Bhutan
- Indonesia
- Rep. of Korea
- Rep. of Maldives
- Pakistan
- Thailand

APPENDIX

Inaugural Address by
Mr. A. Chiba, Deputy Director and Director a.i.
Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania

It gives me a great honour to welcome you to the Regional Seminar on Training of Educational Personnel - Meeting of Project Directors, on behalf of the Director of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania. I am particularly happy to meet again many old friends and colleagues with whom I have had the privilege of working together for so many years.

Several meetings of the Project Directors and CTAs have been organized by Unesco in the past. The present Regional Seminar is one in the series of such meetings. As most of you have been associated with these meetings, there appears to be no need to explain their nature and history.

However, one unique feature of the present Regional Seminar is that it is the first meeting of the project directors and the CTAs, decentralized from the Unesco Headquarters, in Asia. As you are aware, the Director-General of Unesco, is placing a great deal of emphasis on decentralizing a number of technical responsibilities to the Regional Office, and there is no doubt that the policy of decentralization will be pursued even more vigorously in the future.

The Regional Office in Bangkok, I am happy to say, is one of the Unesco Regional Offices which meets the expectations of the Director-General in following up his policy of decentralization.

The operational responsibility in six Asian countries, i.e. Bangladesh, Burma, Kampoucha, Laos, Thailand and Viet Nam, has been decentralized to the Regional Office. In this connection, this Regional Seminar provides a first step forward towards establishing a useful working relationship between the national projects assisted by Unesco, and the Bangkok Regional Office. Personal, informal and friendly contacts and links, with mutual

respect and appreciation, which I hope this Seminar will establish, will no doubt be the basis for any further co-operation.

Concerning the countries other than those mentioned above, Unesco's operational responsibility in support of the Unesco-assisted projects will remain with the Division of Educational Operations at the Unesco Headquarters. However, this does not mean that the Regional Office has no role to play. On the contrary, the Regional Office is ready to assist all the countries in the region, in any way possible.

The Regional Office has many technical resources, such as in the fields of educational planning and management; educational facilities; curriculum development; teacher education; educational technology; science education; population and family life education; technical and vocational education; literacy, adult education and non-formal education; environmental education; educational documentation etc.

At the request of the governments, these technical resources are to be placed at the disposal of the Member States in Asia and Oceania in order to co-operate in the establishment and strengthening technical capabilities of the countries at national and sub-national level. The increasing trend toward TCDC, technical co-operation among developing countries, also demands increasing flow of information and mutual sharing and learning of experiences among developing countries. The Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID), which is an integral part of the Regional Office, is particularly well equipped to meet the needs in this domain. There is no doubt many of you are already associated with APEID in one way or another.

Concepts of education are always evolving, but in my opinion, the 1970s have witnessed very rich developments in, and the fundamental reflection on, the concepts of education. The concept of life-long education is being accepted by a majority of policy-makers, planners, administrators and educators. Non-formal education was advocated as almost a panacea to perform the miracle of educational development at one time. This is now being replaced with the more realistic approach of a continuum of formal, non-formal and informal education. Continuing searches are being made to rediscover indigenous modes of

education which complement the formal school system. Education as a means of economic development, manpower development and nation building had, at one time, dominated the educational policy of developing countries in the 1960s. This idea has gradually been widened to attack the problems of social equity in the 1970s. The Asian Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning, convened by Unesco in Colombo in July this year, has taken further step, in recognizing the importance of the cultural base in educational development, and has adopted a recommendation calling for a more integrated social, economic and cultural concept of education. Education for the handful of elites is no longer acceptable to any country. Education of the mass, education for rural development, and education for underprivileged and deprived populations, are widely gaining the acceptance of the majority of policy makers.

However rich these conceptual reflections may be, they will not be of much relevance to the majority of people, unless concrete steps are taken to realize these ideals and ideas in the actual educational scene. Here, educational personnel hold the key. Are educational personnel promotors and facilitators of these new concepts? Are teachers really change agents and animators of community life and development? Here we are facing a serious dilemma. We are confronted with two apparently contradictory recommendations: One set of recommendations calls for the increasing role of educational personnel as change agents, community development agents and even social reformers. On the other hand, the other set of recommendations calls for more restricted use of educational personnel, for strictly pedagogical tasks that are carefully defined, in order to perform the original tasks assigned to educational personnel, especially in view of their low salary scales, poor living conditions, and poor professional qualifications.

Many bold educational reform programmes have been neutralized by the inertia or non-co-operation (though not intentional), of educational personnel. The sheer negligence in the initial stage of formulating educational reforms, in missing consultations with educational personnel, often brings catastrophic results. How to gear the educational personnel to the newly emerging concept, of educational development, and how to gain their

wholehearted support and motivation for more development oriented education is indeed a burning issue. How to help them equip themselves with attitudes, technical know how and skills required in newly emerging circumstances is a related issue. Other significant issues are: How to cope with the sheer quantitative requirements of mass education and education for rural development? How to motivate educational personnel to transform schools and other forms of organized learning into happy places of learning and living for the majority of children from poverty stricken families? How to de-formalize the formal school system and how to introduce socially useful productive work integrated into the learning process? Furthermore, how to transform the mentality of educational personnel from a "teaching" and "instruction" oriented perception to a more "learning" or "learning for living" oriented concept?

Most educational authorities cannot afford the luxury of more philosophical and theoretical debates. They are facing almost agonizing choices and dilemmas in discharging their daily duties. All of us present here have abundant concrete and practical experiences. We are gathered here to share our experiences and to move one step forward towards identifying common problems and their solutions.

Unesco has been very fortunate in being called continuously to co-operate with the Member States in their efforts for educational development. What lessons have we learned and to what extent have these lessons been taken into consideration in improving our co-operation with the Member States? What further directions should be pursued and what reorientations should be made in meeting the newly emerging and constantly changing needs? How should we establish the new patterns of co-operation changing from the so called "expert-counterpart" relationship to a co-worker relationship?

The crucial battle ground for educational development is shifting from the centre to the grassroots, and the magnitude of requirements for development calls for a transition from pilot-project approaches to mass introduction or harmonious incorporation in the system of education. The increasing development of expertise at national level will also oblige Unesco to reconsider

its role in the development of co-operation. And what should be the role of Unesco in the new demand for TCDC?

I hope that this week's consultation will give useful guidance towards enhancing further, Member States-Unesco co-operation. We are now in the most peaceful city of Chiangmai which is a well known centre of cultural traditions in Thailand. Chiangmai has a special place in the hearts of many Thai friends. I do hope you will also enjoy the life and culture of Chiangmai as well, and I hope that our Chiangmai Seminar will occupy a special place in your own minds and hearts for many years to come.

Let me reiterate my appreciation for your presence here and I wish the Seminar every success.